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ABSTRACT

Four issues of the "TESL Reporter" are presented.
 Contents are as follows: "The Utterance-Response Method to Pattern
 Drill" by Jason B. Alter; "Your Gestures and Mannerisms: A Help, or
 Hindrance?" by Alice C. Pack; "Part II: A Structural Comparison of
 English and Tongan" by Ermel J. Morton; "Teaching Pattern Practice
 With a Language Game" by Carla Weustoff; "New Trends in Language
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 Conversational English" by Robert G. Bander; "The Use of 'How Much'
 and 'How Many' in TESL Textbooks" by Alice C. Pack; "TESL and Music"
 by Charlotte K. Dykstra; "Cultural Horizons and Language Usage" by
 Jan Ocampo; "TESL: An Undergraduate Major Program" by William D.
 Conway; "TESL in the Total School Curriculum" by Alice C. Pack;
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The Utterance-Response Method to Pattern Drill

BY JASON B. ALTER

The Utterance-Response approach represents an attempt to improve upon and go beyond the traditional or ordinary structural drill or pattern drill. Utterance-Response drills provide the quality of meaningful context and utilize natural, realistic language, thereby acquainting the student with patterns, in settings, that he can actually use outside the confines of the classroom. The drills are most palatable, both to student and instructor.

This approach is embodied in a set of materials that Mr. Roy Collier, Mrs. Miho Tanaka Steinberg, and I began to work on in the winter of 1964 for use at the English Language Institute, University of Hawaii. We sought to use language and patterns that were more natural and less stilted or awkward, intentionally avoiding the overly formal, the textbookish, and the prescriptive.

Jason B. Alter is Assistant Professor of English in the English Language Institute, University of Hawaii in Honolulu.

Here are some examples from an actual drill. This is part of Practice 2, Unit 8, one of two units that emphasize drills on "-Ing" and "To" verbs following other verbs.

1. Did Susan have time to wash the dishes? (Almost!) She didn't quite finish washing them.
2. Did Bill have time to write the term paper? He didn't quite finish writing it.

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3. Did Ruth have time to address the envelopes? She didn't quite finish addressing them.
4. Did Dad have time to read the paper? He didn't quite finish reading it.
5. Did Jack have time to figure his income tax? He didn't quite finish figuring it.

The utterances are in black print; the responses in brown. This draws

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attention to the two-person, give-and-take arrangement of the drills. All the responses are printed in the text, enabling the student to practice the correct responses at home; this is in accord with the philosophy that we should be doing more teaching and less testing. In class the text is seldom open, except at the very introduction of the drill.

All of the grammatical items at issue are presented in the responses, not in the utterances. Italics and arrows indicate these items in the first response in every regular exercise; in pattern testing exercises the first two responses are so marked. In the drill in question both "finish" and "washing" are italicized, marked by a single arrow.

This article is based upon Mr. Alter's speech delivered at the NAFSA Conference in San Francisco on May 3, 1968.

Notice that the student has other things to worry about besides the grammar points; namely, pronoun shifts in both subject and object. "Susan" becomes "she," and "dishes" becomes "them." Wherever possible we forced such changes, to avoid monotony and to add a challenge.

The utterance serves merely to elicit the response. In many cases the utterance is a statement, and the response is a question. The student is thereby given ample opportunity to phrase questions in English, a feature that is sometimes neglected. In several drills the utterance is a statement, and the response is also a statement. For example, again from Unit 8:

Utterance. I hate to write letters.

Response. I don't mind writing them.

The goal is to give the student experience with all sorts of combinations, rather than the hackneyed question-answer syndrome alone.

The listening comprehension aspect of the Utterance-Response approach needs mention. The varied nature of the drills challenges the student to listen carefully to the

utterance. Giving the proper response requires more than simple substitution. In this era of large lecture courses, the student spends a major portion of his time listening, but may seldom have a chance to speak. Given the foreign student's reluctance to ask questions in the classroom (even truer in his non-ELI classes), it is essential that we build his listening ability.

Cues Eliminated

Utterance-Response drills have all but eliminated the need for artificial cues. In effect, the entire utterance is a cue, and a natural one. The student is never faced with the following type of drill:

Instructor: Whatever she serves is all right with me (does)

Student: Whatever she does is all right with me.

Instructor: (the children)

Student: Whatever the children do is all right with me.

Virtually never would the foreign student (or any student) be asked, outside the language classroom, to engage in this sort of interchange. Therefore, why have the student practice something that he will never use? Instead, each Utterance-Response

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Articles relevant to teaching English as a second language in Hawaii, the South Pacific and Asia, may be submitted to the editor through Box 127, The Church College of Hawaii, Laie, Hawaii 96762. Manuscripts should be double-spaced and typed, not exceeding three pages.

Deadline for the winter editor is November 25, 1968.

Your Gestures and Mannerisms: A Help or Hindrance?

BY ALICE C. PACK

One of the areas which Teachers of English as a Second Language seem to neglect is personal gestures and mannerisms. Although sentence structure, intonation, and vocabulary are very carefully controlled, gestures are often used unconsciously or without any previous study or consideration. Many teachers feel that gestures are a universal language and that communication by sign language is primarily primi-

pair is arranged in the form of a two-line dialogue. An Utterance-Response version of the above would go like this:

- U. What's Helen serving?
R. Whatever she serves is all right with me.
- U. What're the children doing?
R. Whatever they do is all right with me.

This smacks more of communication, which is supposed to be the name of the game.

The Utterance-Response drills are a part of the saturation process that should characterize the language classroom. The student should not be given time to think in his own language. The nature of intensive language activity suggested here seems to indicate that communication is indeed going on. As the drilling on a particular practice proceeds to its later stages, as the class seems to be catching on, the instructor begins to probe and check on comprehension by asking impromptu questions on various items in the drill. These questions are rapidly interspersed with the actual drilling. This procedure adds a spontaneous quality and forces the student to think about the meaning of the Utterance-Response pair more deeply.

tive and natural, thus subject to only one interpretation. This language myth is quickly exploded as one examines various cultures. True, there are intercultural gesture cognates as well as word cognates, with similar and nearly similar interpretations, but every society has its own peculiar "sign language" which teachers should search out, then encompass or avoid, according to the meaning and/or connotation.

No Tours Today

Recently I took some visitors to see the industries of our island and called at the sugar factory near Honolulu. As we approached the building I stopped suddenly and informed my guests that the company wasn't taking tours that day. When questioned as to where I received this information I indicated a company official standing inside the building near a second story window and replied that the man in the office had told me. When I turned to leave, my guests, who were very anxious to see this factory, questioned my certain knowledge that no tours would be conducted that day. After all, they knew no one had spoken to me - there had not been any verbal exchange - so how could such definite communication have taken place? This was a perfect example of a meaningful body movement: The man's hand wave -- a side to side rolling movement of the vertical open hand -- has a peculiar significance in Hawaii*, and I had clearly "got the message" although to others in the group it was merely a friendly wave.

Cultural Meaning

ESL teachers must be particularly sensitive to peculiar cultural significances of common American and English gestures as unawareness can often alienate or unknowingly offend

students. Young children often laugh and snicker, or even show shock at these faux pas and the teacher can later find the reason and eliminate his error, but adults are not always so cooperative; mature students are often too polite to indicate these feelings.

Samoa Experience

During a workshop in Western Samoa this past summer I was surprised to learn that one of the very common signals for class response--a beckoning motion with the cupped hand in front of the instructor--indicates inferior status in the learners; thus it is disrespectful. Although this gesture had been used rather extensively in demonstrations and in films shown to a group of Samoan teachers, it was not until the third day of a five day workshop when gestures per se were discussed, and the teachers were asked which gestures were considered acceptable in Samoan culture, that someone volunteered the information that none of them would use this signal in their classrooms. (When the gesture was



Acceptable

discussed in American Samoa native teachers agreed that it was a derogatory gesture). When a beckoning motion of the finger was discussed, the response was that this gesture was even worse than the first--it would only be used to call a dog!

After discussing various gestures to indicate class response all of the Samoan teachers agreed on a gesture that was acceptable to their



Unacceptable

culture. This was cupping the hand but substituting a motion which started from the side to the front and then back toward the teacher, for the previous front toward teacher movement. Such a small difference, but it meant so much. Time spent in front of a mirror practicing this gesture until it became a "natural" one was worth the effort for all the previous, unconscious resentment disappeared and there was a feeling of unity or "togetherness" in the workshop class. All ESL teachers will agree that teaching becomes extremely difficult and learning considerably curtailed when this bond between teacher and students is lacking.

Ask an Informant

There are studies currently being conducted in this field which should soon be available as helps for teachers. However, every teacher can usually find a friendly native adult informant, or better still a small group of friendly informants, and discuss with them the impact of their normal, habitual gestures on the students and the advisability of adapting, changing, or substituting these for more effective classroom gestures.

* This gesture is variously interpreted as "it's all over," "nothing today or nothing now," "he's not here," "I don't have it," "not available at present", "it's cancelled", "I don't know", etc.

Part II: A Structural Comparison of English and Tongan

BY ERMEL J. MORTON

This is the final part of Dr. Morton's article. His complete dissertation is available from: UNIVERSITY MICROFILMS, P.O. Box 1346, Ann Arbor, Michigan 48601

Tongan uses a prepositional phrase in many cases where English uses a clause. Even though he went is expressed in Tongan by neongo ene 'alu "despite his going" (neongo "despite," ena "his," and alu "going"). Another example, because he failed is rendered in Tongan as koe uhi ko 'epa ro'o "because of his failing" (koe uhi "because of," ko substantive predicative, ene "his," and ro'o "failing"). The extent to which Tongan prepositional phrases are used in contexts where English uses a subordinate clause is a prominent difference between Tongan and English.

Tense Markers

Tongan uses function words to mark tense. 'Alu "go," ne'e 'alu "went," 'oku alu "goes or is going," 'e alu "will go", etc. On the other hand, English uses inflection of verbs in the present and past tenses and function words in the progressive, perfect and future tense forms. In imitation of the Tongan verb pattern, a Tongan will say or write John was take instead of John took. When he does this, the Tongan is attempting to use was as the equivalent of the Tongan past tense marker na'e, which is used in an analogous way to the the English verb was in the sentence Na'e 'ita ia "He was angry" (Na'e past tense marker, 'ita "to be angry" and ia "he"). In this example, as in many other examples that may be cited, the tense marker may be translated as was (Na'e 'ita ia, literally Was angry he). The Tongan is aware of this similarity and is often tempted to use was in English as though it were a tense marker.

Thus the present and past tense forms of the verb "be," since they carry the inflections for tense, are often used by Tongans as substitutes for the past or present tense markers. Since English uses the function word will to mark the future, there is no problem for a Tongan in the use of the future tense in English. Sometimes a Tongan, conscious of the need for inflecting English verbs in the past tense, will even use was or were with a past tense form of the verb such as in John was took instead of John took. Verbs are perhaps the hardest past of English for a Tongan to master.

Dr. Ermel J. Morton is the Director of the Linguistics Institute at Ricks College in Rexburg, Idaho.

In Tongan, there are three numbers: singular, dual and plural with the plural indicating three or more. The latter two numbers are marked by specific function words or number markers. On the other hand, English uses the inflectional suffix -s or -es in forming the plural of most nouns. In Tongan, ongo is a function word marking the dual number of all nouns, as: fale "house," ongo fale "houses". In the plural, kau is used to mark the plural number of nouns referring to persons: tangata "man," kau tangata "men"; fanga is used with nouns referring to animals, insects or birds: pato "duck," fanga pato "ducks"; and ngaahi is used with nouns referring to things: hala "road," nagaahi hala "roads". Since English marks plural nouns by inflection, it is easy for a Tongan to omit the -s (or -es) suffix and to say or write all the box instead of all the boxes. In English, there is agreement between subjects and verbs in certain tenses, whereas in Tongan there

is no such agreement. Consequently, a Tongan will often drop the -s from the third person, singular, present tense and will say or write He speak English rather than say He speaks English. A Tongan also has trouble with has and have and the various forms of be in the matter of agreement. He has difficulty in correlating am, is, are, was and were as well as has and have with the corresponding subject. Not only is the problem one of agreement of subject and verb but the tendency to use all such auxiliary verbs as though they were tense markers also confuses the situation. Since all auxiliary verbs in English show the tense inflection, they tend to seem like tense markers to the Tongan student of English. Consequently, a great deal of drill on verbs is necessary to overcome these problems.

Noun-Genitive Case

The possessive or genitive case of nouns also gives some trouble. Nouns are not inflected for genitive case in Tongan although there is one suffix which carries the same meaning as the English possessive form of. Note mata'i hele in which mata means "blade," i means "of," and hele means "knife". A mata'i hele is a knife blade. Since the suffix 'i "of" merely makes a modifier of the noun to which it is attached, it cannot, however, be classed as a genitive form despite the resemblances. It is rather a device showing modification.

Instead of using an inflected form such as John's in John's book to indicate the possessive case, Tongan uses a prepositional phrase consisting of the possessive preposition 'a "of" and a substantive, as in tohi 'a Sione "book of John". Thus, o "of" with its allomorphic form of a "of" is used in Tongan in a structure similar to the English prepositional phrase introduced by of: fale 'o Sione "house of John" etc. Tongans readily use the English possessive phrase with of, but must learn to use such possessive forms as John's coat, Mary's dress, etc. Some mistakes result in the use of English possessives.

Since much less difficulty is encountered by the language student in reducing multiple forms to a single form than is encountered in expanding one form to many, Tongans readily learn the use of English possessive pronouns when the latter parallel the former in their usage. For example, 'eku, hoku, si'eku, and si'oku, all meaning "my", are readily reduced to their single English counterpart my. Moreover, both the Tongan and English possessive pronouns are used in a position before nouns, so no difficulty is experienced in their use with regard to position. But there are uses of possessive pronouns which cause problems. One difficulty with regard to the use of possessive pronouns is one which concerns the difference between the -o group possessives and the -e group when used with verbs. In finding an equivalent English expression for 'ene taki "his leading" vs. hono taki "his being led," 'ene tukuaki'i "his accusing" vs. hono tukuaki'i "his being accused," a Tongan sometimes has difficulty in differentiating active and passive in the English expression used. The greatest difficulty in use of possessive pronouns, however, is encountered with use of the indefinite possessives. Note the example: 'E fefe ha'aku 'alu? ('E "will", fefe "be how", ha'aku "a my", 'alu "going"). It is difficult for a Tongan to arrive at the English sentence "How could I go?" or "How could I possibly go?" from this Tongan sentence.

In view of the fact that English, as has been indicated, makes use of function words as well as inflection for marking comparison of adjectives and adverbs, and since Tongan uses function words exclusively, there is some difficulty for Tongans learning to use English inflected adjective and adverb forms such as bigger, biggest, smaller, smallest, faster, fastest, farther, farthest, better, best, etc. The difficulty is greatest with regard to the use of the irregular forms, both adjective and adverb.

The differences between Tongan and English in formation of the com-

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Teaching Pattern Practice With a Language Game

BY CARLA WEUSTHOFF

In our Hawaii schools we find many children who rarely make use of our basic English sentence patterns and who have extremely meager spoken vocabularies. We need to provide interesting and easy opportunities for repeated oral expression using standard English forms. There are many specific speech concepts and practices we need to teach and then the crystalization and expansion of this knowledge calls for drill.

Is there a flexible oral word game which can be adapted to different levels of learning or skill and which can provide practice in a variety of concepts, or specific aims which the teacher has at the moment?

I have used the simple parlor game "I Spy" (or "I See" - or a variation, "I Am Thinking of Something") as a language arts tool to develop various responses from the children, and have found the youngsters most enthusiastic participants. And because this game seems to fit so well into the principles and methodology we have been studying in TESL, I thought I might suggest it to you and point out some of its advantages.

Miss Carla Weusthoff is a 3rd grade teacher at Fern School in Kalihi.

Primarily, the game can provide pattern practice in four basic English sentence structures: (1) the three-part sentence, (2) the inverted question, (3) the negative response, (4) the positive response. It allows for repetition, replacement of words and expansion of expressions, and it highly motivates vocabulary growth.

Method of Presenting. The teacher explains to the children the nature of the game (which will follow) and if the children are second graders or above, she will need to tell them that although the game they are going to play will be fun, and may even

become very exciting, it is a learning device and the rules of the game call for their adhering to the proper speech patterns that are being taught. (Otherwise they will wave and point, saying "is it dis?" or "it dat?")

Using the correct stress, rhythm and intonation, the teacher presents the statement and answer forms - perhaps the following:

(Child who is IT, or the Leader)

¹ I see something ³ green.

(Child volunteering to guess)

² Is it the green ³ chalkboard?

(Leader) No, It is not. Or, No, it isn't. Or, Yes, it is.

Because we usually have several very shy or inarticulate children in a class the teacher might, in accordance with Finocchiaro's method, have the whole class repeat these utterances for sound practice and to gain confidence. When the whole class has imitated the teacher for two or three examples, the teacher may call upon individual children to repeat alone from their seats. Then, she may choose a capable child to be the first "IT", and so on. The teacher needs to stress that turns to guess be widely given so that every child will have a chance to participate.

Once the sentence - question pattern is mastered by most of the children, the objectives of the game can be shifted to a variety of other skills, which will depend upon the nature of the group-age level, English language familiarity, etc.

One can see the possibilities of using this game in extremely simple and controlled form with a group of very young children, or children from non-English speaking families. By utilizing a limited number of objects,

or pictures, a yellow banana, a yellow pencil, a yellow flower; a red apple, a red crayon, a red ball; a green leaf, a green book, a green marble, the names and identification of a few colors and of a few common articles can be taught - along with the important statement and question patterns.

Application

For utilization in the needs of the second to slow-sixth-grade Hawaii youngsters, we can find this game helpful in some of the following ways:

(1) To expand upon the vocabulary building aspect, it involves identifying objects by the names by which they are known and making use of these names. This means using many nouns and adjectives, and it works toward overcoming usage of expressions like "da kind", dis dat, da-blah-ovah-dere, etc.

(2) It requires much use of correct possessive forms, i.e. "Is it Mary's dress?" - not "Mary dress?".

(3) It can provide additional sentence usage: "Please give us a hint," (or a clue); and "I suggest that we give up."

(4) It allows for creative expression for the more articulate children who enjoy enlarging questions to fairly elaborate degrees as in "Is it the green leaves in the pattern of Henry's shirt?", or "Is it the blue words on the cover of John's book?", etc. In fact, the child who is "IT" soon develops a tendency to require specific questions - he asks "what pink on the bulletin board?", and the questioning child is faced with the need to use adequate language to point out what he has in mind.

(5) The above paragraph shows that the child learns the need and value of prepositional phrases to indicate just 'where' - to show relationships in regard to location and position.

(6) The game can be geared to a limited vocabulary or concept building area, such as a social studies vocabulary (items of clothing, etc.) or arithmetic concepts - geometric shapes - "I see something round,

Workshops in TESL Held at Church College

Over fifty elementary and secondary teachers from Hawaii and the Mainland participated in two workshops in English as a Second Language during the annual Aloha Summer Session of The Church College of Hawaii.

During the four-hour daily sessions participants were given an intensive introduction to phonetics and TESL methodology. During the second week of the two week workshops teachers demonstrated and, in many cases, actually taught short lessons that they had developed to apply TESL methodology to the problems found in the classroom.

Summer school officials indicate that 906 people attended the 1968-69 Aloha Summer Session. Next year additional workshops will be offered in English as a Second Language and many other areas.

something square, a rectangle, a circle, etc."

Throughout the progress of such a game, the teacher observes and listens to the children. In rare instances she may want to intervene to enable the children to better express an idea they are struggling to convey. She may encourage a particularly shy child to take part. She identifies children who may need individual help later.

One very practical value of this game which should not be overlooked is that in its more general form it requires no materials at all, except the environment, and can, therefore, be played anywhere and by any number of players. It can likewise be used by the children in their own social situations beyond the classroom.

This article was submitted by Carla Weustoff as part of her project in a TESL workshop held at The Church College of Hawaii during the annual Aloha Summer session.

English and Tongan--

(Continued from Page 6)

parative and superlative of adjectives and adverbs is apparent from the following examples: big, bigger, biggest (inflection) and lahi "big", lahi ange "bigger", lahi taha "biggest" (use of function words); bad, worse, worst (inflection) and kovi "bad", kovi ange "worse", kovi taha "worst".

English makes use of four function words to indicate comparison: more, most, less and least. On the other hand, Tongan uses three function words to mark the comparative degree and only one to mark the superlative. These are ange, hake and hifo, marking the comparative degree and taha used to mark the superlative. Note the examples: lahi "big", lahi ange "bigger" or lahi hake "bigger"; si'i "small", si'i ange "smaller" or si'i hifo "smaller"; beautiful > more beautiful > most beautiful or less beautiful > least beautiful. Since the use of function words in Tongan parallels the use of function words in English in forming such comparisons, Tongans readily take the transfer to the English constructions with no difficulty. As has been stated, the main difficulty to the Tongan is in the use of the inflected comparative and superlative forms of adjectives and adverbs.

Adjective Position

The normal adjective position in English is before the noun that the adjective modifies as in big house. In Tongan, this order is reversed for most limiting adjectives: fale lahi (fale "house", lahi "big"), tama-si'i angalelei "well-behaved boy" (tamasi'i "boy", angalelei "well-behaved"). Problems sometimes arise for Tongans in the placement of English adjectives, but there are not so many problems of this sort as in the placement of adverbs.

The greater number of problems with adverbs result mainly from the

wide variety of adverb positions that are possible in the English sentence. Only is an example of an adverb with extreme flexibility of use in English. Note the following examples: Only he wanted to go early. He only wanted to go early. He wanted only to go early. He wanted to go only early. He wanted to go early. The combination He wanted to go early only is not likely. Such a variety of positions for adverb confuses a Tongan, as Tongan has very few adverbs that may occur in positions other than a position next to the verb. Fakamolemole "please" and na'a "perhaps" are among the few adverbs that may occur elsewhere than next to the verb and even they are not moveable as many English adverbs are.

Adverb Position

Most Tongan adverbs follow, and a few precede, the verb or adjective they modify. Some meanings that are expressed with an adverb in English are expressed in Tongan with verbs accompanied by a tense sign, as: Na'e tuai 'ene lele "His running was slow" (Na'e past tense marker, tuai "slow", ene "his", and lele "running"). An example of this usage is the following: Na'e 'ikai te ne 'alu "He didn't go" (Na'e past tense marker, 'ikai "not", te an allomorph of the so-called conjunction ke which is a function word used with verbs in noun clauses, ne "he", 'alu "go"). In this example, 'ikai "not" appears in the verb slot following a tense marker and hence must be classified as a verbal.

Tongan adverbs modifying adjectives usually follow the word they modify as lahi 'aupito "very large" (lahi "large" and 'aupito "very"). Some Tongan adverbs modify adjectives, however, precede the adjective as fu'u lahi "exceedingly large".

(Of course, English adverbs modifying adjectives and other adverbs precede the word they modify, as very rapidly.)

The somewhat more complex morphology of English as compared with Tongan presents some problems to Tongan students of English. Tongan morphophonemics, on the whole, is simpler than that of English. Many English morphemes have several allomorphs whereas Tongan morphemes generally have fewer allomorphs; in fact, most Tongan morphemes have only one or two allomorphs at the most. The Tongan plural morpheme has less allomorphs all of which are far more regular than the English plural morpheme. There are fewer Tongan words having variant base forms to which different suffixes are added than there are in English. There are quite a few words in English of the type money, monetary (bases mōni- and mand-), refer, referred, referee (bases rifer- and refor-) and absolve, absolution (bases abzal- and absol-). The fact that English formerly was a highly inflected language and the fact that a large amount of the vocabulary consists of borrowings, particularly from French and Latin, accounts, at least in part, for this greater morphological complexity.

This more complex morphology together with the fact that, for the most part, Tongan spelling is very close to being completely phonemic whereas English spelling has a great deal more irregularity to it creates problems for the Tongan student. He has a problem correlating all the allomorphic forms as well as learning all the variant spellings that occur.

Tongan Syntax

So far in this brief paper, the main consideration has been given to matters of accident and the parts of speech. In the remaining portion of the paper, only a few of the main points concerning syntax will be discussed.

The so-called infinitive clause in English consisting of an infinitive or infinitive phrase plus a substantive indicating the doer of the action of the infinitive has no counterpart

in Tongan and presents problems to the Tongan studying English. Such an infinitive clause as me to go in the sentence They want me to go is equivalent to a noun clause in Tongan. The infinitive clause me to go is equivalent to the Tongan ke u 'alu (Ke function word introducing noun clauses and indicating purposive aspect in verbs, u "I" and 'alu "go"). The full Tongan sentence is 'Oku nau fiema'u ke u 'alu "They want me to go" ('Oku sign of present tense, nau "they", fiema'u "want", ke function word introducing noun clause and indicating verbal aspect of purposive action, u "I", and 'alu "go"). Infinitive clauses like me to go are harder for a Tongan to acquire than the regular noun clause such as "that I go", which parallels the Tongan clause ke u 'alu.

Participle Phrase

Participle phrases used adjectivally in English are equivalent to full subordinate adjective clauses in Tongan. There are no real participle phrases in Tongan. For example, I saw a man coming toward the house is equivalent to the Tongan Naku ku mamata ki ha tangata 'oku ne ha ki he fale ('Na a past tense marker, ku "I", mamata "see", ki "to", ha indefinite article "a", tangata "man", 'oku present tense marker, ne "he", ha u "come", ki "to", he definite article "the", fale "house"). The clause 'oku ne ha ki he fale is equivalent in meaning to the participle phrase coming toward the house in the English sentence. There are numerous phrase modifiers in English that are equivalent to clause modifiers in Tongan; consequently the Tongan studying English wants to use full adjective clauses rather than the shorter modifiers of the participle type.

Subordinate adverbial clauses introduced by the adverb when in English are equivalent to prepositional phrases in Tongan. For example, when he came is equivalent in Tongan to 'i he 'ene ha'u ('i "up" or "at", he "the", 'ene "his", ha'u "coming"). The same Tongan phrase

'i he 'one ha'u is also equivalent in meaning to the English clause when he comes referring to future action.

As is common, more or less, with most languages, a number of Tongan prepositional phrases beginning with i "in or at" or ki "to" are equivalent syntactically to a direct object or goal in English. The same is true of some English prepositional phrases and Tongan direct objects or goals. For example, in English we say I saw the man but in Tongan a person says Na'a ku mamata ki he tangata, literally "I saw to the man" (Na'a past tense marker, ku "I", mamata "see", ki "to", he "the" and tangata "man"). Other similar Tongan verbs requiring prepositional phrase following them are tokoni "help", sio "see", 'ofa "love" and manako "like". Each of these verbs is normally followed by a prepositional phrase beginning with ki or 'i that is equivalent in meaning to the corresponding English verb followed by a direct object or goal. Note the sentence He helped me which is equivalent to the Tongan Na'a ne tokoni kiate au (Na'a past tense marker, ne "he" tokoni "help", kiate an inflected form of ki meaning "to" and au "me"). The reverse situation is true of the verbs which in Tongan are transitive, taking a direct object, but in English the same idea is expressed by a verb plus a prepositional phrase. For example, the Tongan sentence Na'a nau kata'i ia "They laughed at him" (Na'a past tense marker, nau "they", kata'i "laughed at", ia "him") may influence a Tongan to say "They laughed him", leaving out the preposition at.

Syntax Comparison

The syntactic constructions of English are much more complex than Tongan. Tongan does not have as many complex sentences, especially those containing several subordinate clauses. This complexity of English syntax creates many problems for a Tongan learning English. However, because of limited space, it will not be possible in the present article to treat all of the problems of English syntax met by a Tongan learning English.

New Linguistics Journal Issued In New Guinea

Pacific area language and linguistic studies were enriched recently with the publication of KIVUNG, the journal of the Linguistic Society of the University of Papua and New Guinea.

KIVUNG, according to Andras Balint the editor, was formed in October 1967 with the aim of promoting research in English, in Melanesian Pidgin, in indigenous languages, and in general and applied linguistics.

In this first issue of what is hoped to be a quarterly publication a selection of papers from the first annual conference is given. Francis C. Johnson, Foundation Professor of English and President of the Society, discusses English "supersententials". The use of the computer in linguistic research is described by Maxwell H. McKay, Foundation Professor of English and President of the Society of Mathematics. Two papers, given by John R. Prince and Andras Balint present contrasting views of the time concepts of Papuans and New Guineans. A new approach to dialect study is suggested by Bjorn Jernudd, Secretary of the Linguistic Society of Australia. Andrew Taylor gives a socio-linguistic view of the language situation in a Papuan village. Problems of emphasis and contrast in English nominal constructions are analysed by English Lecturer, Don Stokes.

To become a member of KIVUNG, the Linguistic Society of the University of Papua and New Guinea, a payment of ten dollars will provide a corporate membership; and five dollars will provide an individual membership. KIVUNG, the quarterly journal of the society, will be sent free to members in either classification. Subscriptions should be addressed to KIVUNG, P.O. Box 1144, Boroko, Port Moresby, T.P.N.G.

Education Survey Reveals 2,312 ESL Students in Hawaii Public Schools

The public schools of Hawaii have about 2,312 non-native speakers of English enrolled, according to figures found in a Survey of Non-English Speaking Students Attending the Public Schools in Hawaii, Research Report No. 58, published May 23, 1968, by the Office of Research, Department of Education.

This number was obtained in a survey which received responses from 190 out of 208 schools included in the initial survey.

This number, which represents 1.4 per cent of the total public school enrollment, was obtained from the responses of the 190 schools that completed the survey questionnaire. This count breaks down into the following groups: Samoan 611, Japanese 416, Philippines 337, Ilocano 335, Cantonese 142, Tagalog 121, Chinese (Dialect not determined) 90, Korean 40, Spanish 39, Visayan 37, Mandarin 34, German 21, So. Pacific 20, French 14, Chamorro 10, Tongan 9, other 36. These students are found in grades K-12 with a slightly heavier concentration in the lower grades.

With 158,418 students classified as native-speakers of English enrolled in all public schools in the state, perhaps it isn't too surprising to find that of the teachers surveyed, none had a teaching certificate in

TESL and only two had master's degrees in TESL. Very few had had TESL practice teaching experience. Many had attended workshops and institutes in TESL.

Hawaii News

We were all surprised and saddened to hear of the death of Dr. Richard C. Sittler on June 18, 1968. Dr. Sittler was Chairman of the Department of English as a Second Language, the University of Hawaii.

Mr. Ted Plaister has accepted the position of Chairman of the Department of English as a Second Language. Assisting him will be Charles W. Mason, who will be Director of the English Language Institute component of the department.

In-service workshops in TESL were conducted in Tonga, American Samoa and Western Samoa during June by William D. Conway and Mrs. Alice C. Pack of The Church College of Hawaii English Language Institute at the request of the Church School system owned and operated by the Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints.

One week was spent in each country showing films, conducting classes, holding individual conferences with teachers, and visiting classes.

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New Trends In Language Acquisition Theory

BY WILLIAM D. CONWAY

Every method of language teaching has at its heart some theory of language acquisition. For the past three decades or more the theories of behavioral psychologists such as B.F. Skinner have been prominent in the development of the language acquisition background upon which linguists have based many important aspects of the audio-lingual approach to language instruction. In recent years, however, many linguists have begun to feel that the audio-lingual method is not in step with advancements in language acquisition theory. Psychologists have become increasingly interested in the cognitive aspects of language learning, something receiving little emphasis in behavior-

al "stimulus"/"response" theories. It seems important that the classroom teacher have some knowledge of the underlying theories of language acquisition to be most efficient in using any method. At the same time it also seems important to be aware of possible changes and trends that may influence methodology in the future.

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It is the purpose of this paper to examine briefly, in nontechnical language where possible, some of the basic tenets of behavioral theories, as they relate to teaching English as a second language, and to examine similarly, some of the prominent trends in cognitive acquisition theory.

The basic differences between the two theories of language acquisition can be illustrated roughly by comparing first the behavioral and then cognitive viewpoints of language acquisition in children.

"The child associates the sounds of the human voice with need-satisfying circumstances; when he hears his own random babbling, these sounds are recognized to

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be similar to those uttered by the adults so that the pleasure or anticipation of pleasure associated with mother's voice is now transferred to his own vocalizations. Thus, hearing his own sounds becomes a pleasurable experience in itself, the more so as mother tends to reinforce these sounds, particularly if they by chance resemble a word such as "dada." This induces a quantitative increase in the infant's vocal output. Soon he will learn that approximating adult speech patterns, i.e., imitating, is generally reinforced, and this ought to put him on his way toward adult forms of language."¹

S/R Theory

The behavioral psychologist (as illustrated in the quotation) is interested in what "stimulated" the child to speak, in his "response," and in the manner in which the response was "reinforced" by the praise and attention of the parents and in the pleasure the child received at gaining attention for his efforts, i.e. "secondary reinforcement." The behavioral psychologist, in an effort to become objective and scientific, works much like the structural linguist in that he attempts to work only with what is observable; hence, he is not concerned with the unseen processes of the mind. Later when the child begins to produce sentences that aren't easily shown to be the results of imitation, the behavioral psychologist attributes the new form to a graded process of analogy in which the child is said to be reacting to similarities with previous speech "stimuli."

Cognitive Theory

The cognitive psychologist, on the other hand, emphasizes what goes on in the mind of the child in addition to the external factors.

Here is one of the primary differences between the two approaches to language acquisition, which places them on divergent paths. The cognitive psychologist believes that the mind has a great deal to do with language acquisition rather than act-

ing and reacting as a machine to "stimulus" and "response." While the behaviorists focus on the observable stimulus and response, considering "generalization" as only a part of a larger process, analogously the cognitive psychologist says that pattern recognition and de-coding are the proper subject of study.

Behavioral theories are apparent in some basic features of the audio-lingual method. Usually advocates of this method assume that foreign-language learning is basically a mechanical process of habit formation, and that habits are strengthened by reinforcement and association. Students are guided in such a way that they practice only the right responses. Some experts have so emphasized the mechanical nature of language acquisition that they claim students can master the foundation structures of the language without reference to meaning. "Pattern practice," one of the central features of the audio-lingual method in which substitutions are made on a basic pattern, would appear to be a direct result of the behavioral idea of "generalization of stimuli." One frequently finds the cue in such a drill referred to as the "stimulus" and the answer as the "response." Little more need be said; the language acquisition heritage is readily appa-

(Cont. on page 6 (Col. II))

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Articles relevant to teaching English as a second language in Hawaii, the South Pacific and Asia, may be submitted to the editor through Box 127, The Church College of Hawaii, Laie, Hawaii 96762. Manuscripts should be double-spaced and typed, not exceeding three pages.

Deadline for the spring edition is March 7, 1969 and May 1 for the summer edition.

A Jabberwockian Approach To Discourse Analysis

BY NANCY ARAPOFF

*Twas brillig, and the slithy toves
Did gyre and gimble on the wabe;
All mimsy were the borogoves
And the mame raths outgrave.*

Lewis Carroll's poem "Jabberwocky" is very popular in freshman composition texts, partly because of its delightful nonsense words, but mostly because it illustrates so clearly what grammar is. Native speakers often have great difficulty understanding the nature of grammar. Because they don't have to think about grammar in order to formulate sentences in their language, they fail to see that the meaning of the words they utter is determined largely through grammatical context. Words have become real things to them, rather than parts of a symbolizing system.

In "Jabberwocky," though, most of the words have no meaning. The students, however, will insist that they do. When asked whether TOVES refers to a thing or to an action they will inevitably assert that it refers to a thing, or, rather, to two or more things. Then, when asked how they know this, the light dawns. They begin to discover what grammar is: a system which creates meanings.

Since grammar, then, is the conveyor of meaning, it ought certainly to be useful in teaching reading comprehension to foreign students, in teaching students to figure out the meaning of what they read. But the kind of grammar taught in reading comprehension courses must be discourse grammar, not sentence grammar: foreign students taking reading comprehension can already understand sentences, already know the grammar of English sentences fairly well, else they would not be in such a course. Thus, the goal in teaching comprehension must be to teach stu-

dents to understand linguistic units larger than a sentence: discourses. Just as the students should be able to identify the subject of a sentence, so too they should be able to find the assertion in a sentence (the predicate), so too they should be able to identify the assertion in a discourse (the thesis). But all too often they never learn to do this. And the fact is, few teachers can tell them how: few teachers can tell them what discourse grammar is.

Mystique of Language

I think that the minds of all too many of us have been boggled by the many composition and literature courses we took throughout our school years. We tend to think of the written language as a kind of mystique in which THEME and PLOT lurk as mysterious entities. Frankly, as sophisticated as we may be when it comes to sentence-level grammar, we join our unsophisticated students when it comes to discourse-level grammar. If we were asked, for example, why we knew a certain sentence was the thesis of an essay, I'll wager that most of us would answer that it was the main idea of an essay, the one that all of the other sentences discussed, or something like that. We find it very difficult to disassociate ourselves from the meanings of the sentences in a discourse so that we can look at the system which creates those meanings.

I therefore propose that we use a new approach to the grammatical analysis of discourses; an approach in which we can be sure that meaning

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will not interfere with the objectivity of our findings; i.e., a "Jabberwockian" approach.

Space here does not permit thorough exposition of this proposed means of analysis. However, the sample unit below, composed of a model discourse written in "Jabberwockian," and of some questions about it, will give teachers some ideas as to how to use such an approach. Using this approach will help students to understand a "real" written discourse by helping them to understand the grammatical system which creates the meaning of the discourse.

Sample Unit

Although morsle flays have one overtrumping ovingle as compared to Maniacan flays, they also have one abstonate disovingle. To illustrate, morsle flays have the ovingle of being a much more smackical bim than Maniacan flays: their ferial cran is less; they cran less to abodate; their tropes are less cranly, and their regray ploy is trumber. On the other hand, morsle flays have the disovingle of being less grumby than Maniacan flays: they haven't as much flour; they have less zam; they don't drom as smithily; and they plack the bondaful maxic trainks that Maniacan flays have. Therefore, those flay-branners twingled in smakomy bim morsle flays while those twingled in grum bim Maniacan flays.

Questions for Students

1. What is the subject of the above paragraph?
2. What is the thesis (the general assertion about the subject)?
3. What two general examples illustrate what the thesis asserts?
4. What relationship do these examples have to one another--i.e., do they have a cause-effect, chronological, enumerative, comparative, or additive relationship?
5. What specific examples illustrate each of the general examples?
6. The questions you have just answered have required that you recognize the meanings of senten-

ces, not in isolation, but in relation to other sentences in the paragraph. These meaning relationships were recognizable only through the presence of various grammatical signals. On a discourse level, the most common grammatical signals are: a) positioning of phrases and sentences within the discourse, b) repetition of key words, synonyms, pronouns, c) parallelism, d) morphemes like -ER, and e) punctuation--especially colons and semicolons. Give specific examples from the paragraph of each of these kinds of grammatical signals, and explain how the presence of these signals makes the meaning relationships among the various sentences of the discourse recognizable to you.



Left to Right: Mrs. King, Sir Arthur King, Dr. Gerald Dykstra (University of Hawaii) and Alice Pack (CCH) with back to camera.

Dr. Arthur King is Comptroller, British Council, in charge of world wide British ESL programs. The Kings had a two day stop in Hawaii during September. They, with their hosts in Hawaii, Dr. and Mrs. Gerald Dykstra, made a brief visit to the Church College campus and were guests of President Owen J. Cook for a tour of the Polynesian Cultural Center. The British educator expressed considerable interest in the BATESL major at the Church College, and felt that such an undergraduate program should be offered at more colleges and universities as the need for trained English teachers on the elementary and secondary level in the English Second Language field is world wide.

From Pattern Practice To Conversational English

BY ROBERT G. BANDER

Few assignments require more flexibility and imagination than a course in conversational English for students of English as a second language. Materials for teaching English conversation are scarce and generally limited in scope. Topics for discussion are hard to choose. All too readily, the teacher, or one or two more advanced students, comes to dominate the discussion. Student shyness must be overcome; lack of student preparation must be compensated for; boredom must be put to rout.

Fledgling teachers of conversation, in their search for instructional materials, often begin by introducing books of readings. The problem here is that readings are frequently too long to be treated in class and too difficult to be read at home. The conversation period easily falls into a teacher-dominated one. A second, and better, approach is dialogues. However, memorization of dialogues may take longer than the interest they arouse can be maintained. In

role. As in most of the previously-mentioned activities, there is no assurance that such visual aids will generate discussion.

Where, then, is the teacher of conversational English to turn? First of all, the instructor must realize that it is unrealistic to expect students to jump from controlled drill activities directly into free conversation. Instead, the teacher should block out a series of sequential exercises in limited response situations. In this way, he will more surely bridge this crucial gap between pattern practice and conversational English, extending the students' experience and bolstering their confidence in a controlled conversation situation.

Basic Steps

The best first step for the instructor is to give students practice in answering questions with increasingly complex responses. First answers should be in short forms ("Yes, I did," "Yesterday," "At five o'clock"). Then whole sentence answers should be encouraged. After a time, students will move on to replying with a subject-verb pattern, plus another sentence giving additional information. This stage is followed by one in which the answer consists of three parts: a reply to the question; an additional statement; and a question directed back to the original interrogator. Working on such three-step answers seems to be one of the best ways of moving toward free conversation. It is essential at this stage that the student learn to add something more and to turn the conversation back to the other person with a question. Otherwise the conversational situation comes to resemble a cross-examination -- the teacher asking the questions, the student replying with a monosyllable, the teacher asking again.

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any case, students are not really producing their own. Short dialogues that can be quickly memorized are the best of this kind of activity. A third commonly followed practice, oral reports, is often the most deadly. Students tend not to know how to organize, and they don't know when to stop their monologues. Still another approach--classroom pictures used to stimulate conversation -- usually results in an illustrated talk on vocabulary by the instructor. Finally, movies and slides generally last too long, shifting the student into a passive

The next sequential step focuses upon the progression from the student answering questions to his asking them. At first, the instructor will have to write questions on slips of paper to give to students, who then vocalize the questions. Later students can be expected to formulate their own questions. Additional activities in this area include the teacher reading a brief selection and then asking for questions to bring out more facts, or a student acting as a reporter or "man in the street" television interviewer asking other students questions.

Suggested Sequence

Conversational English activities, of course, should be arranged in order of increasing difficulty. Here is a suggested sequential series of methods: period one, answering questions; period two, asking questions; period three, students spontaneously questioning the teacher; period four, answering the questions with two complete, logical ideas followed by a question; period five, unprompted conversation, with questions produced by the students; period six, oral reports on articles, followed by questions; period seven, round table discussion; period eight, retelling the facts of an article or story read aloud by the teacher; period nine, extemporaneous speaking; period ten, role playing, ranging from the simple (a boy late for a date) to the more complex (a murder investigation and trial). In the more advanced stages of conversation, stories can provide much material for practice in speaking. Students can paraphrase a story told by their instructor; they can supply the ending to an unfinished story; they can take turns adding episodes in a serial story. Note, however, that each of these developmental activities is repeated several times and that the ten conversational periods mentioned above will cover several months of class work.

The Importance of Planning

In order to produce successful conversation periods, planning is most important. Alternate activities should be prepared in case the plan

Language

(Cont. From page 2)

rent and the results of its application to language teaching have been excellent, certainly an advancement over earlier methods.

The shift in the theoretical basis of language acquisition, as mentioned earlier in the introduction to this paper, has been away from behavioral theories towards a re-emphasis of the importance of the mentalistic or cognitive aspects. Men such as George A. Miller, Eric H. Lenneberg, and Noam Chomsky have been helping to research and develop new aspects of this type of theory. Chomsky writing in "A Review of B.F. Skinner's Verbal Behavior" published in 1959 says, "As far as acquisition of language is concerned, it seems clear that

for the day does not work. Then there should be constant variety. Activities in which most of the students are passive should alternate with sessions in which everyone participates. Students should be prepared for each activity so that they will know what they are to do and why they are doing it. Cultural differences must always be kept in mind in arranging activities. If a teacher uses reading materials, movies, and pictures, he should build the material into a unit. Activities such as oral reports, round tables, and discussions require considerable preparation. Invariably students will not know how to pick out main ideas, organize, and summarize. Much teacher help is needed here. Finally, experience suggests that conversation classes should be assigned to the most experienced and ingenious teachers, those who will be willing to undertake extensive curriculum building. With careful planning and constant self-evaluation, the instructor of conversational English will find his course to be a richly fulfilling experience both for his students and for himself.

Acquisition

reinforcement, casual observation, and natural inquisitiveness (coupled with a strong tendency to imitate) are important factors, as is the remarkable capacity of the child to generalize, hypothesize, and 'process information' in a variety of very special and apparently highly complex ways which we cannot yet describe or begin to understand, and which may be largely innate, or may develop through some sort of learning or through maturation of the nervous system."³

In the same article Chomsky presents considerable evidence to support his views that the foundation terms of behavior psychology (stimulus, response, reinforcement) are "vague and arbitrary." He points out that the stimuli cannot be determined in more complex behavior. Chomsky in effect, reopened the door to studies in language acquisition, making a powerful case for further research and a broadening of the scope of study.

Basis for Collaboration

Chomsky (1957 and 1965) provided linguists and psychologists with a common ground for useful collaboration when he developed his idea of a generative grammar. He began with a basic distinction between "competence" and "performance." A language user's competence is his knowledge of his language; and his performance is the actual use he makes of that knowledge in concrete situations. Chomsky developed his grammar to describe the user's competence rather than, as in most other grammatical studies, dealing solely with what has been produced, i.e., "performance."

Generative Grammar

By a generative grammar Chomsky means simply a system of rules that in some explicit and well-defined way assign structural descriptions to sentences. Obviously, every native speaker of a language has mastered and internalized a generative grammar that constitutes his

Theory

knowledge of his language.⁴ Because competence is not directly observable, but rather a process of the mind, and because Chomsky's grammar provides an avenue for exploring these areas, a wedding of psychology and generative grammar has come about in the efforts of both groups to explain how this "competence" is acquired.

Predisposition for Language?

Some of the theories of this new generation of "psycholinguists" are extremely thought provoking. Perhaps the most startling, at first, is this claim: "That children can acquire language so readily can mean only that they have some innate predisposition for this kind of learning, and this can only mean that evolution has prepared mankind in some very special way for this unique human accomplishment,"⁵ say George A. Miller and Frank Smith in the introduction to The Genesis of Language, a compilation of papers read at the "Language Development in Children" conference held in April of 1965.

David McNeil, in the same conference, presented a case suggesting that early speech is not an abbreviated and distorted form of adult language but the product of a unique first grammar.⁶ This is particularly interesting when contrasted with the behavioral point-of-view presented earlier in this paper.

In constructing a grammar a linguist hopes to reconstruct the competence possessed by fluent speakers of the language. A child hopes to become such a speaker, so he, too, must reconstruct the competence of fluent speakers. He must formulate the grammar of the language to which he is exposed. A linguist can check his grammatical description with his knowledge as a fluent speaker. The child can't do this. The child must acquire language from the great variety of speech that he hears spoken around him. Linguists now postulate that language acquisition, for the child,

is based on something called "explanatory adequacy. This "adequacy" is related to his innate capacity for language which can be represented by a set of linguistically universal statements, or "language universals" as they are often called.⁷ The child, then, is said to formulate his grammar on the basis of his innate capacity or on language universals which are part of the competence of all children. This biological endowment gives him the ability to think abstractly--to classify words and to develop generalizations about the structures of the language.

This innate capacity seems to be approachable through a linguistic theory such as that of generative grammar. Some linguists, such as McNeil, expect that this grammar may include such things as statements of the difference between the base and surface structures, rules of formation and transformation, and definitions of various grammatical relationships. It seems likely that the emphasis given to transformations in some of McNeil's research may indicate this is a point of particular interest to teachers. He feels that what the child acquires may be a knowledge of particular transformations. McNeil accounts for the speed at which native speakers learn the language (1 1/2 to 3 1/2 years of age) by the hypothesis that what children learn first are features that correspond to linguistic universals,⁸ i.e. abstract features, which allow him to systematically approach the patterning of the language.

Role of Practice

Perhaps of more interest to the language teacher are McNeil's statements concerning the role of overt practice, imitation, and expansion in language acquisition. Speaking of the role of overt practice, McNeil said, "Some authors seem to believe that all of language acquisition can be attributed to the gradual strengthening of responses (behavior terms). It is clear, however, that this sanguine view is condemned to frustration, for there are no responses to be strengthened in the base structure of language."⁹ McNeil narrowed down the role of practice

to "Does practice theory characterize what a child does in order to find the locally (native language) appropriate expression of linguistic universals?"

He suggests that children do not produce speech simultaneously; that they have arrived at some sort of grammatical description before they attempt what seems to be the practice of novel forms. Further, in examining the behavioral "response strength" (practice increases strength of response), McNeil cites a number of examples to the contrary where the practiced form is far from dominant, such as is found in the eventual triumph in a child's language of regular verbs over irregular verbs even though the latter are practiced more often. While not discounting practice entirely, McNeil feels "that whatever salutary effects practice imitation might offer, practice may not be very important to language acquisition."¹⁰

Use of Expansion

The principle called "the expansion of child speech" (Brown, 1964) may have, according to McNeil, some instructional purpose. Here, the child, who hasn't reached the same level of abstraction in the use of language as an adult, says something such as "Papa name Papa." The adult follows by saying, Yes, Papa's name is Papa."¹¹ Some linguists feel that this sort of expansion may have considerable importance in the child's acquisition of language.

It seems clear to this author that cognitive studies are producing valuable contributions to language acquisition theory and that these theories will soon be directly involved in the formulation of new methodology for teaching many subjects in the school. Teaching English as a Second Language should particularly benefit from new insights that may be discovered. At the same time, it also seems worth noting that no substitute or revision of the audio-lingual approach of any significance has yet been made available.

(Cont. on page 9)

The Use of "How Much" and "How Many" in TESL Textbooks

BY ALICE C. PACK

Original Problem

My original project was (1) to search textbooks used in teaching English as a second language to find uses of "how much" and "how many" which students might question because a singular form of "be" was used instead of an expected plural, and (2) how the texts used and explained these forms. An example of this is one suggested by Dr. Yao Shen of the University of Hawaii which she found in a text as an example of vocabulary in context: "How much is a cup of coffee and a piece of pie?" The "is" is singular but the subject "a cup of coffee and a piece of pie" is plural. Students could well question this pattern.

(Cont. from page 8)

FOOTNOTES

1. Eric H. Lenneberg, "The Capacity for Language Acquisition," The Structure of Language, ed. Fodor and Katz (New York, 1964), p. 601. (This quotation does not represent the author's own theories of language acquisition.)

2. R. L. Politzer (1961) quoted by Wilga Rivers, The Psychologist and the Foreign-Language Teacher (Chicago, 1964), p. 20.

3. Noam Chomsky, "A Review of B. F. Skinner's Verbal Behavior," The Structure of Language, ed. Fodor and Katz (New York, 1964), p. 563.

4. Frank Smith and George A. Miller, "Introduction," The Genesis of Language (Cambridge, 1966), p. 4.

5. Smith and Miller, p. 3

6. Smith and Miller, p. 7

7. David McNeil, "The Creation of Language by Children," Psycholinguist Papers, ed. J. Lyons and R. J. Wales (Edinburgh, 1966), p. 100.

8. Ibid., p. 101.

9. David McNeil, "Developmental Psycholinguistics," The Genesis of Language, p. 67.

10. Ibid., p. 72.

11. Ibid., p. 73.

Basis for the study was the "TENES" Textbooks Used by Responding Teachers (Table 57). In addition to the forty-two books available from this list, fifteen other titles--single volumes and series--were examined, for a total of fifty-seven single volumes or series.

References Non-Existent

References of the questionable type referred to were almost non-existent in these books--all but one of these elementary through advanced texts avoided anything which might be considered confusing. The only reference I found was ("How much is three dimes and a penny? Thirty-one cents." ¹) in Volume 3 of the most highly used reference on the TENES list. This was used without any accompanying explanation as the second of two examples in a review unit on "How much and the name of coins of the United States."

The research showed that (1) only one item was found in the texts searched, and (2) it was used as an example in the student textbook without explanation or additional exercises.

A page by page perusal of these texts revealed some surprising, if not startling, facts about the teaching of the common American expressions "How much" and "How many", particularly in combination with the very "be."

Terms Ignored

Twenty-seven texts completely ignored these sentence structures without using any reference in unit studies, narratives, dialogs, examples, or exercises--only fifteen of these had "how many" or "how much",

in any form. These used expressions with another verb such as "do" or "have". In two of these texts one or the other of these expressions was used only once, without any attempt to teach the sentence patterns. Once "how many" plus "do" was used as an example to illustrate another grammatical construction. In only sixteen of all the texts examined did the expressions "how many" or "how much" with "be" appear five or more times within the book. There were teaching units for sentence patterns with these expressions in only six of the texts examined; two contained

teaching units combining both "how much" and "how many" with reference to quantity, one had a single unit on "how many" alone, and another had a unit on "how much" with reference to price. Others had anywhere from a single sentence (three texts fell in this category) to a high of forty-five sentences or questions (one text had thirty-eight for "how many" plus seven for "how much"-- both used for quantity items with nothing about "how much" and price in the text). The following is a breakdown on the texts regarding the number of times each pattern occurs.

None	Other Verbs		Units			
	only	additional	Combined	Individual		
				Quantity		Price
				Many	Much	
27	15	20	4	0	1	1

References without units										Individual Ref.			
Combined		Individual								Quantity		Price	Both
less	5+	Quantity				Price (How much)				Much	Many		
		Many		Much		is		are					
		less	5+	less	5+	less	5+	less	5+				
1	0	11	12	1	2	3	2	5	0	14	1	2	4

The six texts with units on "how much" and "how many" with the verb "be" varied greatly in their teaching of these expressions. Many of these books had less student material than some texts without units,

and many taught the unit and then failed to use either expression again in the book as a review of the material learned. Information on the six books which included teaching units follows:

TEXTS WITH UNIT ITEMS

Type of Unit	Ratings as used by TENES				Number of References					
	Elem.	Second.	Adult	College	Quantity			Price		
					Comb.	Many	Much	is	are	comb.
Comb. quantity) and price)	2	10	12	13	0	0	4	10	0	0
	-	2	1	-	6	14	12	5	2	8
Quantity comb.)	-	6	11	3	16	0	0	0	0	0
	-	-	4	1	20	3	0	0	0	0
Quantity-many	33	-	-	-	0	19	0	0	0	0
Price	47	13	3	3	0	0	0	14	20	0

One book (not included in the above list) had a combined unit on the use of "how much" and "how many" for quantity with explanations of count and mass nouns. It concluded with a statement "Note, further, that much and many are often combined with how to form the common interrogative expressions how much and how many." (Examples, How many students are there in your class? How much coffee do you drink every day?)²

The exercises that followed called for the student to put "much" or "many" before nouns in eighteen statements, and had twelve fill-in-the-blank exercises such as "There are many _____. She spends much _____" after that. The example cited in the introduction to the unit was the only reference in the book to "how many" or "how much" with the verb "be" giving no follow-up of any kind on this sentence pattern.

Conclusion

An examination of these representative texts has made me dissatisfied with much of the material used in the aural-oral approach to teaching English as a second language--particularly those which purport to be typical American conversation or dialog. I feel that there is a large discrepancy between the teaching and the conversational use of "how much" and "how many," particularly when these are used with the verb "be," for,

with the exception of six books in readings in English and three books on pronunciation, all the texts examined were directed toward the teaching of basic conversational English.

I realize that English teaching dialogs and conversations must be somewhat artificial because authors wish to cover certain structural patterns and limit vocabulary; however, I find this a reason to encourage the use of "how many" and "how much" with the verb "be" rather than to eliminate it, as these expressions lend themselves to essential structures and simple meaningful vocabulary. I think that at least one unit in every text should cover the basic "how many" and "how much" and their use with the verb "be," and that frequent reference should be made, by way of review, to be sure that students have both the needed recognition and production of such important structures.

Although the teaching of quantity, in relationship to its use, merits less attention in contemporary texts than the teaching of price, in occurrence it is far ahead. In the books examined I found the teaching of price using "how much" with "is" or "are;" to be woefully inadequate. An additional breakdown of occurrences of these items follows:

TOTAL REFERENCES TO HOW MANY AND HOW MUCH WITH BE

Elementary Level						Adult Level					
Quantity			Price			Quantity			Price		
comb.	many	much	comb.	is	are	comb.	many	much	comb.	is	are
0	77	0	0	20	22	42	185	21	6	52	21

Quantity total - 325

Price total - 121

I feel that it is very unrealistic to teach conversations about shopping without any reference to "how much is" or "how much are" -- a frequent occurrence in many of the texts. One book of one hundred English dia-

logs for foreign students had only this one statement using any expression of this kind: "How much is the rent?"³ (Dialog 91 "Renting an Apartment").

From my observations, student

conversation on a college campus contains frequent references to both quantity and price. Most students have limited funds and are vitally concerned with the cost of such items as books, supplies, food, and clothes; students from foreign cultures need to know how to pay for daily purchases, and should have instruction on how to ask questions about quantity and price, as these are fundamental to American culture. If English is being taught as a business language in a foreign country this is still an essential structure.

Viewed from a standpoint on the teaching of "how much" and "how many" with the verb "be", my conclusions agree completely with this last line from a student dialog taken from one of the texts surveyed, and titled "How I Learned English Back Home."

I learned words and phrases that aren't used any more. There should be a revolution in language-teaching books, I think.⁴

Recommendation

Teachers should make a critical examination of their current texts, and if these do not contain a teaching unit on the very important "how much" and "how many" with the verb "be" they might introduce such a lesson. If there is a teaching unit but nothing more follows, they might supplement the text by incorporating some dialogs or review exercises in their teaching of English.

In our next issue there will be two suggested lessons of this type which have been developed for students on the intermediate level of learning English as a second language. Both are based on two single dialogs in which vocabulary items are limited so that focus is in the teaching points.

1. Charles C. Fries and Pauline M. Rojas, *American English Series*, 1952), III, p. 80.

2. Robert J. Dixon, *Graded Exercises in English*, rev. ed. (New York, 1959), p. 33.

3. Angela Paratore, *English Dialogs for Foreign Students* (New York, 1962), p. 46.

4. Ibid., p. 47.

Pacific Teachers Train at CCH

A two-year program designed to train teachers for an increasing number of LDS Church elementary schools in Western Samoa will begin this year at The Church College of Hawaii, according to Mrs. Charlotte Lofgreen, director of the program.

Courses for the pilot program at CCH will include classes in child psychology and educational psychology applicable to Samoa, a study of the subjects included in the elementary curriculum in Samoa, a study of English language texts used in Samoa, with emphasis on teaching English as a second language, teaching methods and techniques used in the Pacific Islands, and the planning and preparation of audio-visual material.

TESL REPORTER

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TESL AND MUSIC

BY CHARLOTTE K. DYKSTRA

The idea is not new. Plato suggested that music should be used functionally (as well as to move the spirit) in learning such subjects as mathematics. Many modern TESL materials do in fact include words and music of old folk songs, and there are even some collections of songs for use in TESL programs, notably one by Doddger and Lee.

There has remained a need, however, for some alternate treatments of the role of music and song in TESL materials. Perhaps there should be a series of songs specially written with difficulty of language content in graduated increments. Or perhaps a series that includes only language content that is being taught simultaneously in a correlated program of classroom materials. More interesting still is the possibility of preparing music to enhance the opportunities of learning English rhythms and intonation patterns.

Charlotte Kuenstler Dykstra has had wide experience in TESL here in the United States and abroad. She is currently coordinator of TESL Materials Development Project at the Hawaii Curriculum Center.

There is also a need to have more TESL-related songs available on inexpensive records. (Record players are more readily available than

are musically equipped classrooms or musically gifted teachers.) The language needs to be clearer than it is on most recordings. Students should be able to hear the words and to participate in the singing when ready. There should also be an opportunity for students to sing alternate verses whether prepared for the students, or created by them. And the music should not be limited to folk tunes.

Songs incorporating some of these ideas were created and tried out in Pacific areas, as well as in North and South America, Africa, and Asia within the framework of the TESL

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Materials Development Center.

There were reports in some areas that "the TESL songs made the unofficial local hit parades" out of school as well as in. Subsequently there was a request from the Hawaii Curriculum Center to prepare a series that could be used locally in schools.

Musical Features

These records include (1) a solo with musical accompaniment but with emphasis on clarity of the vocal part for listening and learning, (2) a chorus with musical accompaniment to encourage pupil participation in a sing-along manner, and (3) a separate section of musical accompaniment only, with one lead instrument playing the melody line, for use after pupils have learned the song.

Grammatical points of language are emphasized in some of the songs. In "I Have Two Hands" I is used in the first verse. The second verse switches to you with subsequent changes in language forms.

Use of Vocabulary

Vocabulary is stressed in some of the songs. "All You Eat," for example, is a song about food.

All you eat, just think of all you eat!

Think of all the bread you eat.

fish
fruit

The second verse changes to "drink" and more vocabulary substitutions are made.

Think of all the milk you drink.

juice
tea
cokes

This song may also be sung to animals and things, with other substitutions.

To a bird: Think of all the seeds you eat.

worms

To a shark: Think of all the fish you eat.

plankton

To a guinea pig: Think of all the feed you eat.

bread

To a sea turtle: Think of all the shrimp you eat.

squids

To a car: Think of all the gas you drink.

oil

Use of Names

"What's Your Name" uses only two sentences and is used as a basis for practice with names and short forms of names.

What's your name?

My name is Patricia. Pat!

Keoki Georgel

Anthony Tony!

"Tropical Birds" contains vocabulary of size and measurement (small, long, narrow, medium-size, heavier than...) and colors (red, green, bluish, ivory white, rainbow-striped, iridescent). The sound and form of these words can become the basis for introducing other grouped words: iridescent, opalescent; rainbow-striped, multi-colored.

Teaching Colors

"Colors of the Rainbow" is a simple song about colors. Each color has a special identifying sound effect.

"Hello, Mary" is a dialogue between two pupils who exchange polite but informal greetings.

(Cont. on Page 4)

TESL REPORTER

A quarterly publication of the English Language Institute and the BA-TESL program of The Church College of Hawaii.

Editor.....William D. Conway, Assistant Professor of English and TESL.

Staff.....Mrs. Alice Pack, Assistant Professor of English and TESL.

Articles relevant to teaching English as a second language in Hawaii, the South Pacific and Asia, may be submitted to the editor through Box 127, The Church College of Hawaii, Laie, Hawaii 96762. Manuscripts should be double-spaced and typed, not exceeding three pages.

Deadline for the summer edition is May 1, 1969.

Cultural Horizons and Language Usage

BY JAN OCAMPO

Language is a specie-specific, unique human trait, composed of a set of sounds which are assembled according to set rules and which interact with the experiences of the users.

Usage is the way we utilize language, the manner in which we choose words and structures, the way in which we express particular ideas. Since no two idiolects are the same, we can say that usage is a personal thing. Yet, although all idiolects are different, we assume they have some characteristics in common or they would not make up a dialect.

The area in which we live is called culturally disadvantaged. Because of our isolation, the children are lacking the necessary exposure and learning. As a result, their language has been affected. Of course, language usage is not the only factor which is involved when speaking about a cultural disadvantage, but this is the area of interest.

Limited Experience

Our children on Molokai, Hawaii, are limited in the variety of their experiences. They cannot go to a zoo, climb the steps of a 20 story building, ride an escalator or take a bus. They do not have the vocabulary which these situations call for. Someone from another place might say, "I took the bus from Waikiki to Ala Moana." In contrast, one of our children might say, "I ben' go de kine when I stay Honolulu--you know, de kine bus." Although the first sentence is closer to standard English, neither can be called correct or incorrect. Language exists mainly for communication and that's exactly what these two speakers have done. If language is behavior, then these two speakers have behaved properly in front of their listeners.

Some people would call the second speaker's sentence wrong, but we must remind them that language relates to the culture in which it is used. Since this is the culture of our children, this is their language.

Bi-Dialectical Students

However, we want to try to show them how their language differs from that of others. We want to teach them a more appropriate form of usage, not just to reject their present usage. We need to show them there are times when this informal speech is appropriate and times when a more formal pattern is necessary. The good speaker is the one who can use either form of speech at the proper times.

Jan Ocampo is an elementary teacher at Kualapuu School, Molokai, Hawaii.

As teachers on Molokai, we have grown accustomed to the speech patterns of our children. We know what they are saying, but we want to make them more sensitive to the shades of language meaning. Good English is that which is appropriate to the purpose of the speaker and comfortable to both speaker and listener. If we can instill this idea in our students, then we may be able to motivate them to develop their vocabulary and their manipulation of sentences.

Of course we know that we are not going to change our children's ingrained language habits overnight. Actually, we do not want to change but only modify and add to them. Language shapes our culture and as a result culture makes a system of language. If we can broaden the cultural horizons of our students, then we will have made a step in the right direction towards helping them with their language problems.

(Cont. from Page 4)

Hello, Mary. How are you?

Very well, thank you. And how are you?

I'm well, too. It's good to see you.

It's good to see you.

Dance Movements

"Make a Flower" combines imperative language with dance-like movements. It is the children who make the flower with movements and poses, add a sun, wind and rain, and make the flower grow. (A teacher's book that accompanies the records shows movements that go with the songs.)

The melody and rhythm of some of the music is written to illustrate intonation and rhythm characteristics of English.

Flexibility

We hope there is flexibility possible in the uses of the recordings. The three segments of each song (solo, chorus, and music only) can be used for listening, singing along, and self-testing. Children are also encouraged to create original alternate verses which can be sung with the music-only segment. Work may be done individually, in small groups, or simultaneously with a whole class. Some students have varied the practice by singing along with all segments. Some have used accompanying movements from the beginning; others have presented "shows" to the class. One important flexibility allows learners to move from the original recorded version to alternate verses in the teacher's book, then on to various levels of "created" versions. A nearly level created version is the substitution of one word as illustrated in "Think of all the food you eat." More advanced ideas for created or original versions relate to phrases and larger units which may be deleted in favor of new ones. Beyond that the students come up with complete versions of parodies of their own.

The design seems, so far, to be useful in teaching English as a second language, and it may help to open further an enjoyable field.



From enjoyment of music to creative language efforts. Mrs. Dykstra with children learning English as a second language.

The series consists of 30 songs recorded on two sides of 15 discs (45 rpm). A teacher's manual accompanies the record set and contains instructions for use, plus the music for each selection arranged for piano, with guitar chords indicated.

Rec.# Selection

- 1 A B C Chant
- 2 Hello, Mary
- 3 Goodbye, John
- 4 What's Your Name?
- 5 We're Friends
- 6 I Like Pennies
- 7 Colors of the Rainbow
- 8 Yellow Horse
- 9 Visiting the Doctor
- 10 My Boat is Floating
- 11 Play with Us
- 12 The Busy Workers
- 13 The Cat Song
- 14 Freedomland
- 15 Mynah Bird
- 16 Ice Cream Man
- 17 Think of All the Food You Eat
- 18 Two Little Mangoes
- 19 To the Market
- 20 Pearly Shells
- 21 I Have Two Hands
- 22 I Have Ten Fingers
- 23 Someone's Watching Over Me
- 24 It's Raining, Isn't It?
- 25 Cherry Tree
- 26 Make a Flower
- 27 You're Four Feet Tall
- 28 Tropical Birds
- 29 Christmas Tree

(Cont. on Page 8)

Part II**The Use of "How Much" and "How Many" in TESL Textbooks**

BY ALICE C. PACK

In the winter edition of the TESL Reporter a recommendation was made that teachers critically examine their English Second Language texts and if they do not contain a teaching unit on "How Much" and "How Many" with the verb "be", they might introduce such a lesson. If there is a teaching unit but nothing more follows, they might supplement the text by incorporating some dialogs or review exercises in their teaching of English.

Lesson Summary

Following are two suggested lessons of this type which have been developed for students on the intermediate level of learning English as a second language. Both are based on two single dialogs in which vocabulary items are limited so that focus is in the teaching points.

In Lesson No. 1, conversation No. 1 teaches the use of "How much _____ is there?" for amount of mass noun and "How many _____ are there?" for number of count nouns. Conversation No. 2 teaches the use of "How much is _____?" for the price of mass nouns and "How much are _____?" for the price of plural count nouns, "How much is _____?" for singular count nouns. The difference in meaning between "How much are _____?" and "How much is there?" and between "How much are _____?" and "How many _____ are there?" is taught by using the words in context in two contrastive conversations.

Lesson No. 2 teaches beginning composition through controlled steps beginning with copying, then con-

tinuing through converting conversation to single statements using past, present, and future time, combining simple statements into compound sentences, free composition based on previous work, and ending with original composition based on the student's own experiences.

**Named Director**

Alice C. Pack, Assistant Professor of English and TESL at The Church College of Hawaii, has been named to succeed William D. Conway as Director of the English Language Institute and Coordinator of BATESL.

The student is already familiar with the material as he has had the exercises in Lesson No. 1 or something similar.

Teaching "How Much"

CONVERSATION NO. 1

Amy: How much milk is there?
Betty: I think there's enough for lunch.

Amy: How many cartons are there in the refrigerator?

Betty: There's only one, but there are two bottles of pop. I'll go and buy some milk.

Amy: Take the change from my purse.

Betty: How much is there?

Amy: Two dollars. By the way, how much bread is there?

CONVERSATION NO. 2

Betty: How much is milk?

Clerk: It's fifty-five cents for a half-gallon.

Betty: Oh, that's too big. How much are these small cartons?

Clerk: They're only fifteen cents.

Betty: I'll take six, and a loaf of bread, please. How much is my bill?

Clerk: The loaf of bread is thirty cents and six cartons of milk are ninety cents. That's \$1.20, plus tax.

Lesson 1

Exercise No. 1. Asking Questions.

A. Review these mass nouns and count nouns and make a question using "How much _____ is there?" (mass nouns) and "How many _____ are there?" (count nouns). Remember to use the plural form of the count noun in the question even if the answer is only one or none.

Mass nouns

bread

butter

milk

coffee

sugar

Count nouns

a loaf of bread

a pound of butter

a quart of milk

a cup of coffee

a bag of sugar

Example: How much is there?

How many loaves of bread are there?

B. Make some questions using "How much _____ is there?" or "How many _____ are there?" using the following list of nouns.

a banana

tea

flour

a cake

a sandwich

bacon

C. Write two sentences using nouns from Conversation No. 1. One should follow the pattern "How much _____ is there?" and the other should follow the pattern "How many _____ are there?"

Example: How much money is there in the bank?

How many loaves of bread are there on the shelf?

Exercise No. 2. Answering Questions.

Answer the questions in Exercise No. 1 using the amounts indicated below in Sections A and B.

Usually the singular answer to the count noun question "How many _____ are there?" is "There's only one."

Answers to questions of mass nouns "How much _____ is there?" are made with relative amounts such as a little, a lot of, enough, etc. or by amounts measured in count nouns such as five pounds of, one cup of, etc. A simple negative answer to the count noun question is "There aren't any," and to mass nouns "There isn't any."

- A. bread (a little)
butter (none)
milk (a glass)
coffee (a lot of)
sugar (two sacks)

and "How Many"

a loaf of bread (two)
a pound of butter (one)
a quart of milk (three)
a cup of coffee (four)
a sack of sugar (none)

Example:

There's a little bread.

There are two loaves of bread.

- B. a banana (two)
tea (none)
flour (five pounds of)
a cake (one)
a sandwich (three)
bacon (one pound of)

C. Answer your own questions with any amounts you desire and again with none for your answer.

Exercise No. 3.

A. Answer the following questions from the two conversations. Please use full sentences for your answers.

1. How much milk did Betty buy?
2. How much was milk?
3. How many loaves of bread did she buy?
4. How much was bread?
5. How much money was in Amy's purse?
6. How many items did Betty buy?
7. How much were the small cartons of milk?

Example: Betty bought six cartons of milk.

B. Fill the blanks from the word list at the right. Use each word only once.

How many _____ are there? milk
How much is _____? loaves of bread
How much are _____? cartons of milk
How much _____ is there? bread
There's a lot of _____ two pounds of butter
There's a little _____ coffee
There isn't any _____ cakes
There aren't any _____ flour

There are _____ sugar
How much is _____? a loaf of bread

Lesson 2

Exercises in Beginning Composition

Exercise I. Copy Conversation No. 1 as it occurs.

Example: Amy asks, "How much milk is there?"
Betty replies, "I think there's enough for lunch."

Exercise II. Change Conversation No. 2 to statements in the simple present tense.

Example: Betty asks how much milk is.
The clerk replies that it's fifty-five cents for a half-gallon.

Exercise III. Write about Conversation No. 1 as though it happened yesterday. Use simple statements in the past tense.

Example: Yesterday Amy asked how much milk there was.
Betty replied that she thought there was enough for lunch.
The clerk will say that is fifty-five cents a half-gallon.

Exercise IV. Pretend that you can see what will happen at the store when Betty goes there. Write about it as it will happen in the future.

Example: Betty will ask how much milk is.
The clerk will say that is fifty-five cents a half-gallon.

Exercise V. Rewrite No. III combining your simple sentences with compound sentences.

Example: Yesterday Amy asked how much milk there was, and Betty replied that she thought there was enough for lunch.

Exercise VI. Using your own words write a paragraph about the two conversations.

Example: Yesterday while prepar-

ing lunch Amy wondered if there was enough milk so she asked Betty how much there was.

Exercise VII. Write an original paragraph based on your own experiences in shopping for groceries.

Bibliography

Editor's Note:

Because of the length of the bibliography, books examined by Mrs. Pack have not been listed in the TESL Reporter. However, a copy will be mailed to anyone interested upon request.

TESL and Music

(Cont. from Page 4)

The series is available from Hawaii Curriculum Center, Section I, Wist Place, Honolulu, Hawaii 96822.

The materials were written or adapted by Charlotte Dykstra and include selections by Alice Pack of Church College of Hawaii and Carol Roes of Honolulu. Recorded arrangements were by Dykstra. Piano arrangements in text version are by Harold Schramm.

Christi Menezes, 13-year-old girl soloist with the Honolulu Children's Opera Chorus, recorded 21 of the solos in the series. Other solos were given to Kim Chee, a Korean orphan; Debbie Lowe, daughter of guitarist Mundell Lowe; Kathy Merry, soloist with Sing-Out Hawaii; and Charlotte Dykstra. Choruses were provided by Miss Eileen Lum, Director of the Children's Opera Chorus, and the members of Sing-Out Hawaii, led by Miss Sharon O'Calvey.

1. Dodderage and Lee. *TIME FOR A SONG*. London: Longmans, 1959.

2. U.S. Office of Education Project HE-084. *TESL Materials Development Project*. Gerald Dykstra, Principal Investigator

3. The Hawaii Curriculum Center, the University of Hawaii and the Hawaii Department of Education. It is engaged in curriculum development over a broad spectrum of areas but with current focus on English language.

Summer Courses Are Scheduled In TESL

The annual Aloha Summer Session of The Church College of Hawaii will include three courses of particular value to teachers interested in linguistics and teaching English as a second language.

A special workshop in TESL will be offered from 8:00-12:00 daily during the two week period of June 16-27. This three semester hour graduate-level course is designed to acquaint the classroom teacher with the basic principles and practices of English as a second language. Teachers from Hawaii will find many points especially useful in handling students with multi-lingual or pidgin backgrounds.

"Introduction to Linguistics," a three credit-hour upper division course, will be offered on a Monday-Wednesday-Friday basis for the entire six week session, running from June 16 to July 25. This course provides a basic introduction to descriptive linguistics and its terminology. Course work includes phonology, morphology and syntax, descriptive and transformational approaches to teaching English grammar.

Teachers interested in the processes of language acquisition will find Education 574, "Cognitive Processes" an interesting course. Meeting from 12:45-2:45 on Tuesday and Thursday, this 2 credit course will include and examination of the mental processes involved in language learning and use, concept formation, perception and problem solving, and the relationship between language and thinking. This course is planned particularly for students and teachers interested in TESL.

Further information may be obtained by writing to The Church College of Hawaii, Aloha Summer Session, Laie, Oahu, Hawaii 96762.

TESL -- An Undergraduate Major Program

BY WILLIAM D. CONWAY

Increasing recognition of the problems of language acquisition for non-native speakers of English and growing attention to "disadvantaged" children and their language problems have brought TESOL into prominence as a profession. As undergraduates contemplating careers in this area examine the catalogues of universities and colleges across the country they usually find that undergraduate programs in TESOL don't exist--most schools offer programs on the masters level.

Programs Not Available

These same catalogues feature undergraduate majors in such demanding subjects as physics, biology, English literature, mathematics, etc. but rarely a degree in TESOL. Must students possess a degree before they are qualified to approach the subject? Is the field so specialized and difficult that undergraduates can not understand it? Examination of the curriculum of many masters' programs suggests that the answer to both questions is NO. According to the TENES survey over 75% of the elementary teachers surveyed who are employed in TESOL have a baccalaureate degree, and somewhat more than half of the high school teachers.

Certainly a master's degree is desirable but do program aims fit the needs? Typically, a master's degree offers greater specialization and greater depth of knowledge, yet is this possible if there is no supporting undergraduate program such as is found in English literature, for example? The master's program of one well-known university seems to have a three-fold objective: preparation of teacher-supervisors and teachers, instruction in materials development, and possibly research. While valuable, this is not the type of preparation needed by the typical classroom teacher in the public schools.

Needs Not Met

Further evidence of the failure of the masters program to fulfill the need of students whose desire is simply to be a teacher is the failure to provide practice teaching. In "A Survey of Twelve University Programs for the Preparation of TESOL" made in 1965, three, and possibly four of the fifteen program variations offered in the survey schools required practice teaching. In two programs

William D. Conway is Assistant Professor of English and TESL at The Church College of Hawaii where he is Director of the English Language Institute and Coordinator for the undergraduate TESL major.

the requirement was optional; thus, in as many as eleven or twelve of the programs, students do not receive a type of training which is considered the sine qua non of most teacher education programs in the United States. Some of the graduates enrolled in these programs undoubtedly had come directly from undergraduate programs and had never taught. Do most public schools in this country hire teachers without student teaching experience? Of course, many of the graduates of these programs are foreign students and practice teaching might be difficult for them--yet, unquestionably, it would also make them better teachers.

It is interesting to speculate as to the type of in-class-behavior a teacher is likely to have following graduation from such programs. With possibly as many as sixteen or more years in traditional teaching situations as a student, and perhaps as a teacher, will his year or two of theoretical study make a significant change in his behavior and allow him to function effectively in his new role?

B.A. or M.A. Needed?

It seems evident that TESOL needs both graduate and undergraduate programs similar to those found in most subject areas. Data from Harold B. Allen's *TENES* survey (196) tend to support the need for this type of dichotomy. Of the groups studied (a major sample of over 1000 is involved) 85% of the elementary and secondary teachers had not had work in methods of teaching English to speakers of other languages. 91% had not had practice teaching in the field. 75% of all teachers (more than 85% of elementary teachers) reported no work in three areas immediately applicable to *TENES* teachings: phonetics, morphemics, and syntax. There are logical reasons why much of this is true, but certainly the fact remains that future classroom teachers and should be provided the training needed on the undergraduate level, the source of most public school teachers.

Baccalaureate Degree

The typical elementary and high school teacher does not hold a master's degree. It seems likely that this will continue to be the case for many years to come, yet these are the teachers that are involved in the classrooms of the nation each day, teaching as well as their preparation will permit. At least a partial answer to the need for qualified TESOL personnel in the public schools is to train them on the undergraduate level just as they are trained in other academic subjects. We must place a far greater emphasis on the training of undergraduates who will have knowledge of TESOL pedagogy and terminology; undergraduates who will have supervised practice-teaching experience before entering the classroom; undergraduates who can qualify for teaching credentials; in short, undergraduates who are prepared to be classroom teachers of English to speakers of other languages.

There seems to be little doubt that the state-of-the-art in TESOL,

while still rapidly developing and changing, has reached the point that curriculum development for a teacher training program need not be entirely an exploratory effort into the unknown. The similarity of many of the offerings found in many programs presently offered suggests that there is some unanimity of opinion. By modifying existing programs to fit the specific objectives of an undergraduate program and by developing new programs, most colleges and universities might attempt a teaching major equivalent to that for English literature or some other common undergraduate subject. Graduates of such programs would do much to raise the quality of TESOL as a profession. The master's programs, by no means obsolete, would have students to draw upon in creating a true graduate program that would provide the in-depth study and specialization needed to further enhance the prestige, knowledge, and achievement of TESOL.

1. Allen, Harold B., *A SURVEY OF THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH TO NON-ENGLISH SPEAKERS IN THE UNITED STATES*. Champaign, Illinois: National Council of Teachers of English, 1966.

2. Ohannessian, Sirarpi and Lois McArdle, *A SURVEY OF TWELVE UNIVERSITY PROGRAMS FOR THE PREPARATION OF TEACHERS OF ENGLISH TO SPEAKERS OF OTHER LANGUAGES*. Washington, D.C.: Center for Applied Linguistics, 1966.

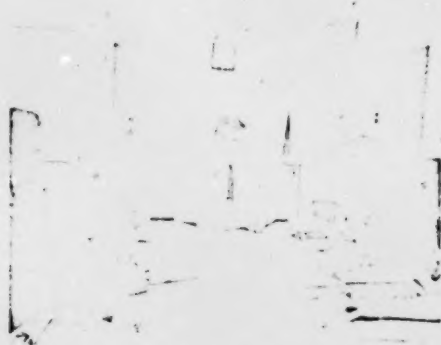
This article is part of a speech delivered by the author at the 1968 TESOL Conference in San Antonio.

Dates Announced

The following dates are announced for the administration of TOEFL during the 1969-70 academic year.

Monday, October 27, 1969
 Monday, January 22, 1970
 Monday, March 23, 1970
 Monday, June 8, 1970

Language, Literature, Methodology Are Features of BATESL Curriculum



Prospective TESL teachers frequently enjoy close rapport with their instructors in small upperdivision classes.



Senior TESL major, Ropeti Lesa of Western Samoa, is shown giving English as a second language tutorial help to an English Language Institute student from Tahiti.



Senior George Hunt of Western Samoa helps a student in the college language laboratory where he is learning how to operate a variety of electronic aids for language teaching.



Mike Foley, senior BATESL major from Salt Lake City, Utah, leads a class in oral drill. Student teaching in the public schools of Hawaii is a feature of the TESL program.

Undergraduate TESL Major Curriculum Is Restructured

The undergraduate major in Teaching English as a Second Language (BATESL), an unusual program offered by The Church College in Laie, has recently undergone curriculum restructuring to fit into the school's new tri-semester plan commonly known as the 4-1-4.

The dual focus of the original program (reported in Vol. I, No. 1) has been retained. Recognizing that many graduates are required to teach in heterogeneous situations where only part of the students may be non-native speakers and that full course loads in TESOL might not be available in many schools, the English department designed a program that provides a complementary focus in literature and language. The dual nature of the program provides a means for avoiding over-specialization that might be an employment problem in some areas.

Revised Program

The revised curriculum consists of the following 4-hour courses: Phonetics and Phonemics, Morphology and Syntax, Advanced Linguistics, TESL Methods, Criticism of Literature, Shakespeare and Contemporary Dramatists, American Literature to 1900, Literature in Polynesia, Twentieth Century Literature, and an English elective. Anthropology is also required.



Undergraduate TESL majors learn to operate the console of a modern language laboratory at The Church College of Hawaii.

Because the BATESL major is designed for teacher training, no provision has been made to grant degrees to students who do not complete the requirements of the education department. Students are required to meet requirements for teacher certification in Hawaii, which include supervised student teaching.

Although in its second year, over twenty students are enrolled in the program with increased enrollment expected this year. The first two graduates will receive their diplomas in June and an additional four are expected to graduate in 1970.

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TESL In The Total School Curriculum

BY ALICE C. PACK

Speech presented at the HPGA-HSCA First Annual State Conference April 19, 1969, Honolulu, Hawaii.

Often a foreign student's discouragement and failure, or near failure, in college classes is attributed to "cultural shock." How much of this "shock" is due to his previous inadequate English preparation is difficult to evaluate; however, early concentrated English training should provide the student with additional communication skills which might alleviate the shock and help make the necessary adjustments to life in a new land somewhat easier.

Many students feel that almost native proficiency in a second language can be attained by attending a daily one hour high school or college class--simply by memorizing the dialogues and vocabulary presented and dutifully writing out the required exercises.

Alice C. Pack is Assistant Professor of English and TESL at The Church College of Hawaii where she will become Director of the English Language Institute and BATESL programs in the Fall of 1969.

After completing a few courses, these students often feel confident that they have mastered the language and can converse fluently in it because they can communicate with each other and an instructor (who may also have limited language proficiency).

Despite the number of years of study, the foreign student's oral English experience in his native land has usually been carefully structured and carefully articulated, with limited experience in idiomatic usage. This is true even when instructors have been native English speakers.

Common complaints of many of our new students are, "I can't understand because everyone

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speaks too fast," and "I can't understand even when I know what the words mean." One new student who had been in school a few weeks even told me that no one on our campus spoke English. I asked him what they did speak, and he replied "slang." When asked to elucidate he said that no one pronounced his words understandably or made complete statements in asking or answering questions. Then I spoke to him with exaggerated articulation and juncture, in typical textbook sentences, "Do you think that I am now speaking English correctly?" His relief was manifest in his smile as he realized that I could speak "correct English" when occasion required it.

Dialectical Differences

Dialectical difference between British and American English may account for some discrepancies in English pronunciation and usage, but this was not the basic problem here. This student had encountered real native language proficiency for the first time--and he experienced an often unrecognized form of cultural shock. His reaction was the natural one--he thought that what he had previously experienced was right, his new experience, which he did not understand, was wrong.

Language Proficiency

Most colleges do not accept students whose English proficiency is below the standard required for Freshman English and thus do not face the English Problem we share with the elementary and high schools of this state--the problem of helping foreign students master enough English to succeed in the regular classroom. Many teachers and administrators mistakenly feel that students will pick up the language on their own or that they can simply enroll in a daily remedial English class and language difficulties will automatically solve themselves. Too often

the student who is left to learn for himself picks up his classmate's pidgin (then we have the additional task of convincing him that he needs to learn an academic or "school" dialect of English). Too often the remedial English teacher has a heterogeneous classroom of English problems--in addition to the English second language students, there are many other students with English problems of pathological and psychosomatic origin.

Importance of Motivation

Almost any student can learn an acceptable dialect of English if he is convinced he needs to, but until he feels this need, it can be an almost impossible task. How to motivate the student to learn a socially acceptable English dialect is not the subject of this paper, but the necessity of acceptance is such an important factor in English Second Language teaching that some mention of it should be made. Bilingual teaching in American public schools under the ERIC program is one way many schools are providing this acceptance.

(Cont. Col II, page 4)

TESL REPORTER

A quarterly publication of the English Language Institute and the BA-TESL program of The Church College of Hawaii.

Editor.....William D. Conway, Assistant Professor of English and TESL.

Staff.....Mrs. Alice Pack, Assistant Professor of English and TESL.

Technical Staff.....Marie Puongo

Articles relevant to teaching English as a second language in Hawaii, the South Pacific and Asia, may be submitted to the editor through Box 127, The Church College of Hawaii, Laie, Hawaii 96762. Manuscripts should be double-spaced and typed, not exceeding three pages.

Deadline for the Fall edition is August 1, 1969.

'Password,' Anyone?

BY NORMAN J. YOSHIDA

A major difficulty the TESL instructor faces is that of maintaining student interest. In the case of the advanced learner of English, the student who has had his fill of pattern practices yet still needs to polish off rough spots in his conversation (pronunciation and grammar), this is especially true. More pattern practices and too many pronunciation drills only bore him; still, he needs to be guided gradually from structured to free (unstructured) conversation to avoid his perpetuating errors in both pronunciation and grammar. One possible solution to the problem of working on conversation with advanced learners has been outlined by Robert G. Bander in his article "From Pattern Practice to Conversational English" (TESL REPORTER, vol. 2, no. 2, winter 1969).

Variety Is Needed

Such a conversation class as described by Bander provides an opportunity for students to engage in dialogue that approaches real conversation despite, of course, the limitations of an artificial environment created by their being in a classroom with an instructor. The sequence of activities outlined by R. Bander offers enough of a variety to prevent boredom. But not every hour of class can be spent on conversation and on making oral presentations (e.g. reports on magazine articles, book reports, storytelling, etc.) There would need to be occasional "breaks" now and then, times when students could feel they were engaging in activities that were fun as well as educational. I would

suggest, then, playing the following word game (I have patterned it after the TV game show "Password") to provide a respite from the rigors of purely academic activities.

Procedure

1. The instructor prepares a set of cards for each two players in his class ahead of time. (This assumes that the class is small--that there are no more than eight students at a time. If the class is larger, the instructor might divide the class up into smaller groups.) On each of these cards the instructor prints a word, possibly taken from a vocabulary list the class has studied or is studying. There should be a word card for each two players (each team).

Norman J. Yoshida is an Instructor of English and TESL at the University of Hawaii, Hilo Campus.

2. The students sit, each facing a partner. The instructor gives one member of each team a card on which is written the "password." The object is for that member to give his partner a clue as to what the "password" is. For example, the word might be CUP. The member of the team who has the word card might say to his partner, "Drink." The response from his partner, "Coffee." The next clue might be "Mug"; the response, "Beer." Only one-word clues may be given at a time, and these clues may not contain the "password." (For example, if the word is cup,

student must have the opportunity to communicate in his new language, he must recognize and produce this new language learning in meaningful situations. English class participation is limited and is, to a large extent, artificial--often similar to that which is taught in foreign classrooms. Others who teach the student should be aware of the structures currently being taught and try to incorporate them in their teaching of Math, P.E., Social Studies, etc. They need to be aware, too, of the foreign student's native language basic phonology and structure and to recognize when a student substitutes native sounds for English or uses native structures, substituting English words.

The Key is Structure

When we conducted a TESL Workshop in Tonga last summer two teachers handed me a bunch of themes and asked me how to correct them. They couldn't decide specifically just what was wrong, but knew they weren't acceptable English. They seemed to need complete revision. It didn't take me very long to pinpoint the problem. The students were using Tongan sentence structure with an English vocabulary. The teachers were right. They couldn't be corrected; they needed to be rewritten, using English sentence structure in addition to English vocabulary.

Everyone Teaches It

If a foreign student hears a structure, which he has learned previously, outside of the English classroom he will, in addition to recognizing it, impart somewhat more significance to it than he might have done otherwise. Learning reinforcement, through repetition of this structure in a meaningful situation, also occurs.

One of the least understood of our English structures for foreign students is the tag question. (A statement with a short question at the end such as: "He left,

didn't he?" or "She's not going, is she?") Many ESL texts ignore this, as they do some of the other confusing English structures. In their native tongue most students have previously listened to the speaker's original statement and answered with the completely correct Japanese, Tongan, or Samoan structure, "Yes, she's not."

Automatic Responses

After students have been taught that English agrees with the situation, regardless of the phrasing of the original question, they need lots of practice outside of the English classroom before this way of answering becomes automatic. The Mathematics teacher can help by asking this student, "Two plus two makes four, doesn't it?" and "Two plus three doesn't make four, does it?" The Home Economics teacher can ask, "That hasn't enough salt, has it?" The P.E. teacher can say, "John hasn't the ball, has he?" etc.

Each teacher could adapt many of the structures currently studied in similar ways and use them to give the student immediate reinforcement in his English learning.

TESL and Typing

One of our business teachers is developing a program for foreign students where the material practiced for speed and accuracy in typing will be structured to give additional practice in basic English structures as well. While linguists do not all agree whether English is a skill (like typing) or an art (like walking) active participation is necessary for both, and so the student's English language acquisition should benefit from such programs. Foreign students could enroll in typing classes with controlled structure and vocabulary earlier than in regular classes and have more meaningful experiences in them.

Counselors (who seem to

Pssst! Pshsht! -- Teaching A Basic Sound Contrast

BY BETTY W. MCKEEN

Young teenagers at Waialua High School frequently substitute "sh" for "s" in their efforts to pronounce English. This lesson, told in story form, has proven successful in attracting attention to older students and in providing a basis for oral drill.

Attract Attention

(Invite attention to the problem by casually telling the following story:) A long time ago, as I was finishing a snack in a plushly upholstered booth in the breakfast shop of the Regis Hotel in Mexico City, I began to get nervous because it was getting close to school time and I wanted the waitress to bring my check. But I was seated next to the wall with five other companions and none of us could see over or around the booth. This didn't bother a native Mexican who was with us. He calmly blew through his front teeth and

quietly said, "Psssst!" Immediately our waitress came running right to us.

After that experience I began to notice what a powerful sound "Psssst" was in Mexico. I could stand on a busy street corner right in the heart of downtown Mexico City and if I wanted to hail a taxi all I had to do was say "Psssst." And even if he was clear across the busy street a cab driver would hear me, make a U-turn, and come right over to pick me up--in answer to "Psssst."

Betty Westhaver McKeen, B.A. and M.A. in Romance Languages, is a teacher of English and Spanish at Waialua High School. Prof. McKeen has taught English as a second language to Future Citizens in Denver, Colorado and had done graduate work in Mexico City, Rome, Oxford, Tokyo, and Honolulu.

~~~~~  
inherit most school problems) would normally be responsible for the coordination of these kinds of programs in a school. The counselor assigns the foreign student to classes and can work closely with his teachers, so he is in a position to elicit their cooperation in a united English Second language program.

Learning a second language is not an easy task for either the student or the teacher, and adjusting to life in a new environment can complicate it. However, cooperative effort can lessen the cultural shock for the student and lessen the frustration for both student and teacher if all school personnel will unite in an effort to solve this challenging problem of teaching English communication to the second language student.

A few years later I went to Portugal. By that time I was fluent in Spanish and I could read a little Portuguese because it looked a bit like Spanish. But Wow!--when I heard that language spoken I couldn't understand it at all. It sounded so different!

One afternoon, as I was walking with a crowd to a fiesta, there was a Portuguese lady in front of me carrying a baby. The baby kept peeking over the lady's shoulder obviously trying to attract my attention. When I looked the other way the baby said, "Pshsht!" (/ s /) Then the baby laughed and flirted with me.

I remembered what I had observed in Mexico and I began to watch these sound contrasts in Portugal. This "sh" sound for the "s" sound is definitely part of Portuguese--a sound so endemic that your ancestors brought it half way around the world, gen-

erations ago--and it's still with you.

But in English you often use it in the wrong places and some times it can convey the wrong meaning. Look at these words--all spelled with "s:"

see

Sal

sun

Oh, son!

soul

sigh

(Write these words on the blackboard or use prepared cards.) And now pronounce them after me. Again. And again. Do you know what all of these words mean? (Discuss)

Now watch--I'll spell all of these words with "sh" and they'll all mean something different. Look.

she

shall

shun

ocean

shoal

shy

Now pronounce after me. Can you hear the difference? Study the two diagrams. Notice the difference in tongue position.

(Demonstrate positions using articulation diagrams. Draw the diagrams on the blackboard.)

Repeat both columns.

Let's go back and put these sounds on the end of some words instead of on the beginning. Say "gas" (write this on the blackboard, or show it on a card) You know what "gas" means--especially if you drive a car. Now say "gash." You couldn't walk

## First TESL Graduates



Seniors Ana La Barre and Noel McGrevy are the first graduates of The Church College of Hawaii undergraduate program in TESL.

if you had a bad cut, or gash, on your foot. There is a big difference, isn't there?

Pronounce after me as I write on the blackboard.

|       |       |
|-------|-------|
| gas   | gash  |
| class | clash |
| mess  | mesh  |
| mass  | mash  |
| puss  | push  |

(Have the class repeat the words comparing the two pronunciations.)

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